corps to Tunis in 1881, consisting of 20,000 men, had 4,500 cases of typhoid, with 884 deaths.

Dr. Brouardel concludes by affirming that if vaccination and re-vaccination were rendered obligatory in France, and if the towns were everywhere supplied with pure water, the country would save from 25,000 to 30,000 lives annually, and these, for the most part, of young persons of marriageable age. He therefore proposes to the academy to adopt the following conclusions: "that the sanitary law in preparation ought to render vaccination obligatory; it ought to furnish sufficient authority to the municipalities, or in their default the prefect or the government, to secure the public health against the dangers which result from using polluted water."

In the discussion which followed Dr. Brouardel's communication many important points were elicited. One speaker drew attention to the evils which arose from cheap lodging-houses. Another insisted upon the superiority of supplying pure water to any methods of filtration. At Angoulême filtration was tried with some advantage, but the provision of a pure supply proved much more successful.

We may learn something from the anxieties of our neighbors. If the outcry against compulsory vaccination now prevailing in some quarters in this country should unhappily effect any slackening in our vigilance in this matter, we shall surely pay the penalty in a heavier mortality from one of the most loathsome of diseases. The example of Germany in this matter is admirable, and cannot be too widely known or too carefully followed. The provision of an absolutely pure supply of water to our large cities is a much more difficult problem than the thorough enforcement of vaccination, but it is at least the ideal towards which our efforts must be directed. It is an immense gain to know positively both the source of danger and the means of averting it, and we must never rest content so long as an acknowledged source of disease, misery, and national weakness is permitted to exist in our midst.

MEAT-PRESERVATION.

DR. HANS BEU points out that nearly all the newer methods of preparing preserved meats have had to give way before the older methods of boiling, drying, salting, and smoking, which, along with freezing, preserve the taste and digestibility of meats better than any of the chemical methods that have more recently been recommended. As stated in the *British Medical Journal*, all these old methods hinder decomposition, and keep meats eatable for a longer or shorter period. Cold acts by preventing putrefactive changes in meat, 2° to 4° C., with good ventilation, preventing the development of most organisms. Boiling, with subsequent exclusion of air, is, of course, good, but can only be carried out in large establishments and under specially favorable conditions. Drying gets rid of the water, without which micro-organisms cannot develop; but, although there is no loss of albuminoid or salts when this method is used, the taste is somewhat impaired. Salt also acts by removing water, but it also removes the extractives, and interferes with the delicate flavor of both meat and fish. Smoke acts partly by drying, the heat at which it is generated rendering this necessary, but partly, also, by the action of the small quantities of the antifermentative constituents, such as creosote, carbolic acid, and even volatile oils, which appear to have a direct action on the vitality of putrefactive organisms.

The author agrees with Förster, that salt has little or no effect upon most pathogenic organisms, but it undoubtedly interferes with the development of the cholera bacillus and of anthrax bacillus that contains no spores, and probably, also, of some of the non-pathogenic but putrefactive forms.

As the result of his experiments on a very large number of food-materials, such as ham, bacon, pork, various kinds of sausages, and fish, Beu comes to the conclusion that most meats are salted not only to preserve the taste, but also to withdraw a large proportion of the water from flesh; that smoking also withdraws a considerable quantity of water, that it hides the salty taste, and that, being able to penetrate dried flesh, it is better able to exert its antiputrefactive action than on fresh meat. Salted lean flesh, exposed to the action of smoke at from 22° to 25° C. for forty-eight hours, no longer contained liquefying organisms, which had been present in considerable numbers before the smoking operation was commenced, but non-liquefying organisms disappeared only on the ninth day of smoking. Salt bacon salted for ten days, and then exposed to the action of smoke for forty-eight hours, also showed no liquefying organisms with a fragment from near the centre taken with the most strict precautions, and broken up in liquid gelatine, which was afterwards allowed to solidify. All non-liquefying organisms had disappeared on the seventh day of smoking. Bacon salted for five weeks contained no organisms after seven days' smoking. Fresh unsalted meat contained both kinds after six days of smoking, and sausage also contained both at the end of twelve days; this being exactly in accordance with what would be expected from the large amount of water that it contained, from the nature of the meat used, and from the many manipulative processes through which it has to go before the smoking is commenced. Fish may be preserved for a short time by smoking only, but it could not be kept permanently. Hams and larger sausages require a longer period of smoking than do similar smaller articles of diet.

THE MAHOGANY TRADE OF HONDURAS.[1]

THE Republic of Honduras, as well as the territory known as British Honduras, have long been celebrated for their forests of mahogany and other fine-grained woods. Belize, the capital of the British possessions in Central America, now a city of considerable commercial importance, owes, says the United States consul at Ruatan, its origin and wealth to the mahogany-cutters. During the first half of the present century, princely fortunes were quickly accumulated in the business; but, since iron and steel have taken the place of wood in the construction of vessels, the mahogany trade has decreased to a notable extent, although it is still large and profitable. The mahogany cuttings of British Honduras require at present more capital to carry them on than formerly. The expense and difficulty of getting out the wood has greatly increased, as but comparatively few trees can now be found near to the banks of rivers and streams of sufficient depth of water to float the logs to the coast. In Spanish Honduras, and especially within the limits of the consular district of Ruatan, there are still forests abounding in mahogany and other precious woods, where foreign industry and capital might be safely and profitably employed.

The following is the system employed in manipulating the mahogany and in felling the trees, and in hewing, hauling, rafting, and embarking the logs in Honduras. Having selected and secured a suitable locality, and arranged with one of the exporting-houses of Belize to advance the means in provisions and money to carry on the works, the mahogany-cutter hires his gang of laborers for the season. Nearly all labor contracts are made during the Christmas holidays, as the gangs from the mahogany-works all congregate in Belize at that period. The men are hired for a year, at wages varying from twelve to twenty dollars a month. They generally receive six months' wages in advance, one-half of which is paid in goods from the house which furnishes the capital. The cash received by the laborers is mostly wasted in dissipation before they leave the city. Early in January the works are commenced. Camps, or "banks" as they are called, are organized at convenient places on the margin of some river in the district to be worked. Temporary houses, thatched with palm-leaves, are erected for the laborers, and a substantial building for the store aad dwelling of the overseer. The workmen are divided into gangs, and a captain appointed over each gang, whose principal duty is to give each man his daily task, and see that the same is properly done.

All work in mahogany-cutting is done by tasks. The best laborers are out at daybreak, and generally finish their task before eleven o'clock. The rest of the day can be spent in fishing, hunting, collecting India-rubber and sarsaparilla, or in working up mahogany into dories, paddles, bowls, etc., for all of which a ready market is found. The mahogany-tree hunter is the best paid and the most important laborer in the service. Upon

[1] From the Journal of the Society of Arts, London.

his skill and activity largely depends the success of the season. Mahogany-trees do not grow in clumps and clusters, but are scattered promiscuously through the forests, and hidden in a dense growth of underbrush, vines, and creepers. It requires a skilful and experienced woodsman to find them. No one can make any progress in a tropical forest without the aid of a *macheté*, or heavy bush-knife. He has to cut his way step by step. The mahogany is one of the largest and tallest of trees. The hunter seeks the highest ground, climbs to the top of the highest tree, and surveys the surrounding country. His practised eye detects the mahogany by its peculiar foliage. He counts the trees within the scope of his vision, notes directions and distances, then descends and cuts a narrow trail to each tree, which he carefully marks, especially if there is a rival hunter in the vicinity. The axe-men follow the hunter, and after them go the sawyers and hewers.

To fell a mahogany-tree is one day's task for two men. On account of the wide spurs which project from the trunk at its base, scaffolds have to be erected and the tree cut off above the spurs, which leaves a stump from ten to fifteen feet high. While the work of felling and hewing is in progress, other gangs are employed in making roads and bridges, over which the logs are to be hauled to the river. One wide truck pass, as it is called, is made through the centre of the district occupied by the works, and branch roads are opened from the main avenue to each tree.

The trucks employed are clumsy and antiquated contrivances. The wheels are of solid wood, made by sawing off the end of a log and fitting iron boxes in the centre. The oxen which draw these trucks are fed on the leaves and twigs of the bread nut tree, which gives them more strength and power of endurance than any other obtainable food. Mahogany-trees give each from two to five logs ten to eighteen feet long, and from twenty to forty-four inches in diameter after being hewed. The trucking is done in the dry season, and the logs collected on the bank of the river, and made ready for the floods, which occur on the largest rivers in June and July, and on all in October and November. The logs are turned adrift loose, and caught by booms. Indians and Caribs follow the logs down the river to release those which are caught by fallen trees or other obstacles in the river.

The manufacturing process consists in sawing off the log-ends which have beeen bruised and splintered by rocks in the transit down the river, and in re-lining and re-hewing the logs by skilful workmen, who give them a smooth and even surface. The logs are then measured, rolled back into the water at the mouth of the river, and made into rafts to be taken to the vessel, which is anchored outside the bar. The building of sloops and small schooners for the coasting trade is an important industry in the island. The frames of such vessels are made of mahogany, Santa Maria, and other native woods of well-tested durability, and proof against the ravages of worms, which abound in the waters.

At present the only woods exported from Honduras are mahogany and cedar wood, although the forests abound in other varieties, which Consul Burchard states are quite as useful and ornamental, and which must eventually become known in foreign markets, and open "new and inviting fields for industry and trade."

CANADIAN SOCIETY OF CIVIL ENGINEERS.

THE fifth annual meeting of the Canadian Society of Civil Engineers was held in Montreal on Jan. 15, when Col. Sir Casimir Gzowski, A.D.C., was re-elected president for the third time. In consequence of ill health he was unable to deliver the usual set address, but in a short speech he congratulated the society upon the continued and steady progress which it was making, stating that it already occupied a position which its sister society in the United States had not reached in the first decade of its existence.

The total number on the list now includes 633 members, associates, and students, and many original papers of engineering value have already been printed. It was also announced that the president had endowed a silver medal to be awarded annually for the best paper submitted during the year, provided such paper shall be adjudged of sufficient merit as a contribution to the literature of the profession of civil engineering. The first of these medals has been awarded to Mr. E. Vautelet for his paper on "Bridge Strains."

During the past year the society has moved from the rooms generously lent by the University of McGill College to more commodious quarters specially fitted up for their accommodation, and centrally located on St. Catherines Street, near the Windsor Hotel.

The principal papers discussed by the society during the past year are the following: "The Screening of Soft Coal," by J. S. McLennan; "The Manufacture of Natural Cement," by M. J. Butler; "Columns," by C. F. Findlay; "Irrigation in British Columbia," by E. Mohun; "The Sault Ste. Marie Bridge," by G. H. Massy; "Generation and Distribution of Electricity for Light and Power," by A. J. Lawson; "Developments in Telegraphy," by D. H. Keeley; "Errors of Levels and Levelling," Parts 1 and 2, by Professor C. H. McLeod.

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR.

*** *Correspondents are requested to be as brief as possible. The writer's name is in all cases required as proof of good faith.*

The editor will be glad to publish any queries consonant with the character of the journal.

On request, twenty copies of the number containing his communication will be furnished free to any correspondent.

Rain Formation.

IT will probably be readily admitted that one of the most complex problems in meteorology is the explanation of the condensation of vapor into visible drops. Cloud has been formed in a receiver by cooling saturated air very rapidly, but it is doubtful whether actual raindrops have been formed artificially. One of the most serious difficulties encountered in studying the problem has been the fact that our observations have been made mostly several thousand feet below the point of formation of the raindrop. Observations on mountain tops have shown a great increase in precipitation above that at the base; for example, the rainfall on Mount Washington (6,279 feet) is double that at Portland, Me., though the latter station is on the seacoast. In September, 1880, the precipitation was 15.23 inches and 3.20 inches, and for the year ending June 30, 1880, 97.10 inches and 45.02 inches, at the two stations respectively. An explanation of this apparent anomaly might aid in solving the general problem before us.

It has been held by some that the rocks and earth at the top of the mountain are colder than the air which blows over it, and for this reason there is the greater condensation at the summit; but it has been proved that the rocks on Mount Washington are several degrees warmer than the air, so that this explanation will not hold. Others have thought that warm saturated air, as it is forced up the side of the mountain, is very much cooled by expansion, and this cooling produces the increased precipitation. This does not hold, however, in the case of Mount Washington, because the top rises up like a sharp cone, and the increased rainfall covers an area many times greater than can possibly be affected in this way. I think it will be admitted that a large share of the precipitation on our mountains is formed within a few hundred feet of the top, in a vertical direction. If so, it would seem that we have here a most excellent opportunity for studying this problem.

There have been published recently, by Harvard College, a complete set of the observations made by the Signal Office at Pike's Peak (14,134 feet), from 1874 to June, 1888, and these are now in a most convenient form for study. It has occurred to me that a valuable addition to our knowledge of the conditions under which precipitation occurs might be made by studying the connection, if any existed, between the temperature fluctuations and precipitation at this elevated point. The usual view is, that a column of saturated air in which moisture is forming into drops or snowflakes is warmer than the air all about at the same level, and for this reason it has a tendency upward. We may put this in another form: if we pass into a column of air in which rain is falling, we shall find the temperature steadily increasing from the circumference to the centre; or, if we take the second interpretation just given for the increased rainfall at the summit of a